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THE LOGICAL

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

F. G. FLEAY, M.A.



THE
LOGICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

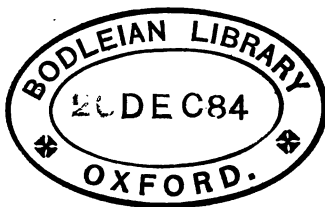
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PREFACE.

ALTHOUGH it might on first consideration appear unlikely that any new views on a subject so often handled by careful thinkers as English Grammar should be desirable or even possible, nevertheless the following treatise is in almost every topic (excepting mere paradigms, lists of suffixes and the like, which are necessarily nearly the same in all such works), different from any of its predecessors. It is founded on, but in no one page a reproduction of, a syllabus printed in 1859 as a manual for my own pupils, and used by me for more than twenty years for that purpose. This manual was received with commendation by the late Prof. De Morgan, Dr. Latham, Prof. Max Müller, and notably by Mr. Fitch in a very careful and exhaustive review in one of the Quarterlies; and the time seems to have arrived when a larger publicity should be given to its method. Among the specially novel peculiarities of handling the subject contained in it are the following:—

1. The logical analytical order of treatment—Syntax before Accidence—is followed throughout,

beginning with the sentence and ending with the simple elementary sounds, in preference to that usually adopted. This is the order of historical development; easier for the learner, and leading to many simplifications. It has also the advantage of placing the most practically important part of the subject first; so that, if the study should for any reason be interrupted, the portion acquired is that which is most valuable for the needs of actual life.

2. A binary classification of words, logical and etymological, is introduced. This is manifestly the only philosophical arrangement; and it avoids the numerous thorny difficulties which beset the learner in that commonly used, in which constant confusion arises from the conflicting exigencies of Inflexion and Syntax, which lead to contradictory complications. Whatever may be the sufficiency of the ordinary method in highly inflected languages, it altogether breaks down in so convertible a speech as our own,—as may be easily seen by examining the usual text-books, in which identical words appear now as pronouns, now as adjectives; at one time as adverbs, at another as conjunctions; in one treatise as conjunctions, in another as prepositions.

3. Several new practical arrangements for analysis of sentences, parsing, paraphrasing, and analysis of

sounds (spelling) are suggested. In the first of these I may seem to have adopted a method of Mr. Mason's, published about 1870, and no doubt independently worked out. My scheme was, however, printed in 1859.

4. The analysis of sentences as here given is thorough, and does not stop till it reaches the elementary word-components. That in common use often evades difficulties, but does not solve them, because it stops at a six-fold arrangement of pigeon-holes, into which it is in many instances impossible to arrange the dislocated sentence; and in those cases where such arrangement can be made, it is often attended with great awkwardness, not to say violence.

5. For the first time in an elementary grammar a complete sound-alphabet is given, and its relation to the written sign-alphabet is fully pointed out. On the other hand, no attempt is made (except in one or two cases where simplification could thereby be attained) to enter into any historical questions of the development of our speech. This work has been well done by Dr. Morris in his "Historical Outlines," and will not for some time need to be done again.

The present book is not intended for specialists,

for readers of *Piers Plowman*, or students of comparative philology,—they must have recourse to Dr. Morris or to the corresponding German works of Koch or Mätzner,—it is meant for those who desire in the simplest form an exposition of the grammar of present English nineteenth-century speech: for schoolboys and schoolgirls as well as adults; and its right to exist depends on the answer to this question: Is such an exposition given in it in a simpler, more logical, and at the same time more complete form, than elsewhere? It is because I believe that the logical arrangement here adopted, as contradistinguished from the etymological one hitherto in universal use, gives me a right to answer “Yes,” that I have chosen the title of “*Logical English Grammar*.”

F. G. FLEAY.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS AS TO MEANING.

	PAGE
Interjectionals	13
Verbals (Predicate)	13
Substantivals (Object, Subject)	13
Adjectivals } (Attributive)	14
Adverbials }	
Prepositions (Transitive)	15
Conjunctions	15
Relatives	16
Copula	17
Articles	17
Symbolics	17

CHAPTER II.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS AS TO INFLEXION.

Verbs (Person, Number, Tense, Mood, Voice)	19
Irregular Verbs (Strong)	22
Irregular Verbs (Weak)	26
Substantives (Gender, Number, Case)	29

	PAGE
Adjectives and Adverbs (Degree)	32
Particles	33
Pronouns	33
Declension of Personal Pronouns	35
Earlier and fuller Case System	36
Adverbial Pronouns	38

CHAPTER III.

AUXILIARIES.

Auxiliary Verbs	39
Verb Conjugation by Inflexion	44
Verb Conjugation by Auxiliaries	46
Auxiliaries of Comparison.	47
Auxiliaries of Gender	47
Auxiliaries of Case.	48

CHAPTER IV.

SENTENCES.

Principal Sentences (Assertive, Imperative, Interrogative) .	49
Subordinate (Substantival, Adjectival, Adverbial) . . .	49
Compound, Co-ordinate, Complex	50

CHAPTER V.

INVERSE PROCESSES.

Analysis of Sentences	51
Punctuation	58

CONTENTS.

II

	PAGE
Parsing	59
Tables for Parsing	60

CHAPTER VI.

WORD-BUILDING.

Table of Indo-Germanic Languages	65
Sources of English	66
Dimorphs, Pseudomorphs, Isomorphs, Synonyms	68
Paraphrasing	69
Prefixes (Table)	71
Prefixes (Examples)	72
Prefixes (Etymological Connexion of)	74
Suffixes (Examples)	75
Exercises in Word-building	80

CHAPTER VII.

ORTHOGRAPHY AND ORTHOEPEY.

Sound- and Sign-Alphabets	81
Classification Tables of Elementary Sounds	83
Remarks on Spelling	85
Exercise in Sound-Spelling	87

CHAPTER VIII.

PROSODY.

Rhymed Verses	89
Laws of Rhyme	90

	PAGE
Notation of Metrical Stanza	90
Kinds of Iambic Rhymed Stanza : Heroic, Rhyme Royal, Ottava Rima, Elegiac, Spenserian, Terza Rima, Sonnet, Alexandrine, Ballad, Common, Hudibrastic, Long, Short, Hallelujah	90-94
Examples of Trochaic, Anapæstic and Dactyllic Stanza .	94
Unrhymed Metres (Blank, Hexameter, Classic, Hiawatha) .	95-6

THE LOGICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS AS TO MEANING.

THE simplest form of thought-expression is when a complete and independent meaning is expressed in a single word: for example, *Hallo! Stop! Yes. Ah! What? Eh?* require no adjuncts to explain them: each word is complete in itself, and equivalent to a sentence. *I bid you stand; that is true; I feel grief; I wish you to tell me,* are not more explicit or clear than the single words given above. Such words are called **Interjectional**. The earliest words in primitive languages were doubtless interjectional.

Next in simplicity is that form of sentence in which two words suffice for completeness; as, for example, *Fishes swim, James reads, Justice decides*. In such sentences we find a something spoken of—*fishes, James, justice*; and a statement about this something—that it *swims, reads, decides*. The name of the thing (or person) spoken of is called a **Substantival** word; the word that tells us something about it is called a **Verbal**.

We also meet with sentences of three words, such as *Fishes drink water*, *James struck John*, *Justice decides disputes*, in which the third word is of the same kind as the first; but, while the first names something that acts, the third names something acted on. In such sentences the first word (*fishes*, *James*, *justice*, who *drink*, *strikes*, *decides*) is called the **Subject**, and the third (*water*, *John*, *disputes*, which are *drunk*, *struck*, *decided*) the **Object**.

The form of sentence next in complexity is when we have additional words giving further information as to a thing or action indicated by a Substantival or Verbal word: thus, in *Marine fishes eagerly drink salt water*, we learn that the *fishes* spoken of are *sea-fishes*, that the *drinking* is *eager*, that the *water* is *salt*. These additional words are called **Attributive**. The Attributive of a Substantival is called **Adjectival**, that of a Verbal is called **Adverbial**. It is desirable to note that every Adjectival attributive, while it increases our knowledge of the things or actions spoken of, at the same time limits the class to which the Substantival name is applied: thus, *marine fishes* form a smaller class than *fishes* by excluding *fresh-water fishes*. Similar remarks apply to Adverbial Attributives.

By comparing such expressions as *armed men* with *men in armour*, and *travelled with haste* with *travelled hastily*, we can see that Attributives such as *armed*, *hastily*, can be replaced by two-worded phrases *in armour*, *with haste*, of which the second word is

a Substantival. The former word (*in, with*) is called a **Preposition**. By further comparison of such expressions as *drew with made drawings, flies with takes flight*, we see that the Verbals in our preceding instances on page 13 stand in exactly the same relation to the Objects that follow them as the Prepositions *in, with*, do to the Substantivals *armour, haste*. Hence such Substantivals are said to be Objects of these Prepositions, and Prepositions are classed with Verbals that take Objects after them under the name of **Transitive words**. A Preposition is then a Transitive Adjectival or Adverbial.

When more than one class of things or actions are to be included under one head, when various statements are to be made as parts of one argument—in fact, when any *homogeneous* portions of language have to be connected—words called **Conjunctions** are used. One class of these (such words as *therefore, because*), which relates to steps in reasoning, only unites sentences either completely expressed or abridged; thus, *Gold is metallic, therefore it has lustre; Man, because rational (i.e. because he is rational), is responsible*. Another class unites words, phrases, or any portions of language of like nature: such words are *and, or, neither*. Thus, *Neither gold nor silver, and this is equally true of most other metals, can form acids, or combine with oxygen in large proportions*. Here *nor* couples *gold* with *silver*; *or* joins *form acids* with *combine with oxygen in large proportions*; while *and* unites *Neither gold nor silver can form acids, or combine*

with oxygen in large proportions, with this is equally true of most other metals.

A third class of Conjunctions is in most grammars stated to exist, consisting of such words as *but, save, unless*. Present usage, however, is decidedly in favour of such expressions as *all but him departed*, and not *all but he*; *none save me agreed to it*, and not *save I*. No doubt these words have been Conjunctions, but in the present speech they are Prepositions; and in those cases where such a word seems to unite sentences as Conjunctions do, the second sentence is really a Substantival object of the Preposition. Compare *few but her* with *Men-are-mammals but frogs-are-not*, where *frogs-are-not* is as much an object of *but* as *her* is. If, however, the reader prefers to use *few but she, all save I*, for *him but* and *save* are Conjunctions: and so they were undoubtedly in the seventeenth century.

Another class of words combines the offices of Conjunction and Substantival or Conjunction and Attributive. Thus, *He was the man, who did it* is identical in meaning with *He was the man, and he did it*; *Honour and truth, which virtues are not common, were found in him*, does not differ from *Honour and truth were found in him, and these virtues are not common*; *I was tired when I stopped* cannot be distinguished from *I was tired and then I stopped*. We see that *who* replaces *and he*, *which* replaces *and these*, *when* replaces *and then*. Such words are called **Relative**.

In addition to the decomposition above noticed of Verbals into Transitive Verbals and their objects, there exists another decomposition, of which the following are examples. *I write* becomes *I am writing*; *I slept* becomes *I was asleep* or *I was sleeping*

It is clear that *writing* and *sleeping* are Adjectivals, and can be used as Attributives of Substantivals: thus, *sleeping lions*, *writing men*. When a Verbal is thus decomposed, or analysed, the Adjectival part is called the **Predicate**, and the other word, *am*, *was*, etc., the **Copula**.

The logical sense is throughout this work assigned to the word **Predicate**; nevertheless "Predicate" is often wrongly used by grammarians in the sense of "Verbal."

There is a small class of words which, though Adjectival in other respects, cannot be used as Predicates. These words, *a*, *the*, *every*, *no*, are called **Articles**.

Every and *no* are commonly omitted in the list of Articles; *a* is called the *Indefinite* and *the* the *Definite* Article.

There are also Adjectival Relatives which are incapable of being used as Predicates; but these can also be used as Substantivals,—e.g., *who*, *which*, *that*.

There are three words which, originally substantival or adverbial in character, have now no meaning whatever in themselves, and serve simply as logical marks or signposts: I would call them **Symbolic**. The sentence *It is true that John said there will be no rain* illustrates the usage of all three. A comparison with the awkward, but strictly logical, form *John said "No rain will be" is true* shows that *there* indicates that the Subject *no rain* is placed after the Verbal (not the Copula) *will be*; the word *that* indicates that the sentence coming after it, *John said there will be no rain*, stands in the place of a Substantival subject to the Verbal phrase *is true*; the word *it* indicates that this subject is placed after the Verbal *is true*. The

ordinary grammatical parsing of *there* as an Adverbial, *that* and *it* as Substantival Pronouns, is meaningless in this instance, although it points to the historical origin of this peculiar usage of these three words.

The classes of words, then, that we find by syntactic or logical analysis of English speech as now used among us, are: 1. Interjectional; 2. Verbal; 3. Substantival; 4. Adjectival; 5. Adverbial (these two last being combined in one under the name Attributive); 6. Preposition; 7. Conjunction; 8. Relative; 9. Copula; 10. Article; 11. Symbolic.

CHAPTER II.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS AS TO INFLEXION.

FROM comparison of such groups of words as *lift, lifts, lifted, lifting; they, theirs, them; book, books; wise, wiser, wisest; early, earlier, earliest*, we see that, while the main portion of a word (its stem) remains unchanged, modifications of its meaning may be produced by alterations of its ending. Such alterations are called **Inflexions**: they vary in words of different kinds.

Words that can indicate state or action are called **Verbs**: they necessarily imply the notion of Time. They have Inflexions for **Person, Number, Tense, Mood, and Voice**.

The Inflexions of Person are two only. When the subject of the sentence is the person spoken to, the termination *-est* is used, as in *thou beat-est, thou gav-est*; when the subject is the person or thing spoken of, the termination *-s* or *-eth* is used, as in *she move-s, it fall-eth*. When the subject is the speaker, or when more than one are addressed or spoken of, no inflexion is now used, as in *I live, you go, they learn*.

Hence Verbs have, strictly speaking, no Inflexion for Number in our language: it is marked by the absence of Inflexion in cases where more than one are spoken of or to—*i.e.* in the **Plural**, and by the

occasional presence of Person-Inflexion in cases where one person is spoken of or to—*i.e.* in the **Singular**.

There is an inflexion which distinguishes Past time from Present in the action or state indicated by the Verb: thus, *I love* (present), *I love-d* (past). This is, strictly, the only living inflexion of Tense in the language. There are, however, so many survivals of an older mode of indicating past time,—not by an added inflexion, but by a change of vowel in the body of the word, as in *strike, struck*; *run, ran*; *take, took*; *get, got*; *freeze, froze*,—that such verbs are often classified in groups, called *Conjugations*. This is quite correct in studying Old English; but to the Englishman of the present time they are simply so many irregularities, which have to be separately remembered. They are gradually disappearing: such forms as *awaked, climbed, crowed, hanged, heaved, seethed, shined*, are replacing *awoke, clomb, crew, hung, hove, sod, shone*, more and more in our popular speech, in spite of the efforts of reactionary *littérateurs*.

For the student of Early English the distinction of vowel-changing (or Strong) Verbs from those inflected in *-ed* (or Weak Verbs) is all-important; for other people, only the distinction between Regular Verbs and Irregular is practically needful. There are, in fact, many words—such as *tell, told*; *teach, taught*—which are Irregular, but not Strong; these words are always recognisable by the addition of the *-d* or *-t*. But such knowledge as is requisite to recognise *feed, fed*, as a Weak Verb, or to distinguish *chide, chid, chidden*, as a Strong Verb, from *hide, hid, hidden*, as a Weak one, is useful only to readers of Early English books or students of comparative philology.

There is merely a negative indication of **Mood** in English by the omission of inflexions. The Person-endings spoken of already must be used in direct assertions (in the **Indicative Mood**); but may be omitted in hypothetical or doubtful expressions preceded by *if, though*, etc. (in the **Subjunctive Mood**); they must also be omitted in commands (in the **Imperative Mood**): thus, *If he hear* (Subjunctive) *from James to-morrow, tell him* (Imperative) *John consents* (Indicative).

The tendency of the present time is to abolish the Subjunctive Mood by assimilating it with the Indicative. In colloquial speech we should expect *If he hears*, not *If he hear*.

The only indication of **Voice** by Inflexion is in that form of the Verb called **Participle**. This form is Adjectival, acting as an Attributive or Predicate. Thus, *a living man, the man is living; a driven ox, the ox was driven*. Where the Participle indicates a state or action of a Substantival, or of the Subject of a sentence, it is called the **Active** Participle; when it indicates an action performed on the Substantival, or subject, it is called the **Passive** (by some the *Past*) Participle. There is an older form of Passive Participle surviving in many words in *-en*, as *spok-en*; and many so-called strong forms, as *swung, stood*. These are for our purpose best grouped as **Irregular**. The following is a list of Irregular Verbs as given by Dr. Morris.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

STRONG VERBS.

The forms in italics are *Weak*; those marked thus * are *obsolete*

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoke
	<i>awaked*</i>	<i>awaked</i>
bake	...	baken*
	<i>baked</i>	<i>baked</i>
bear (bring forth)	bore, bare*	born
bear (carry)	bore, bare*	borne
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld, beholden
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound, bounden
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke, brake	broken
burst	burst	burst, bursten*
chide	chode;* chid	chidden, chid
choose	chosé, chase*	chosen
cleave (split)	clove	cloven
	clave*	...
	<i>cleft</i>	<i>cleft</i>
climb	clomb	...
	<i>climbed</i>	<i>climbed</i>
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
crow	crew	crown
	<i>crowed</i>	<i>crowed</i>
do	did	done

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, drunken
drive	drove, drave*	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought, foughten*
find	found	found
fling	flung, flang*	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
	forgot*	forgot*
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
	...	from*, frore*
get	got, gat*	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grave	graved	graven
en-grave	...	en-graven*
	engraved	engraved
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
	hanged	hanged
heave	hove*	...
	heaved	heaved
help	...	holpen*
	helped	helped
hew	...	hewn
	hewed	hewed
hold	held	held, holden*
know	knew	known
lade	...	laden, loaden*
	laded	laded

Pres.	Past,	Pass. Part.
lie	lay	lain, lien *
lose	...	lorn, forlorn
	<i>lost</i>	<i>lost</i>
melt	...	molten
	<i>melted</i>	<i>melted</i>
mow	...	mown
	<i>mowed</i>	<i>mowed</i>
ride	rode, rid *	ridden, rid *
ring	rang, rung *	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	...	riven
	<i>rived</i>	<i>rived</i>
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
seethe	sod	sodden, sod *
	<i>seethed</i>	<i>seethed</i>
shake	shook	shaken
shave	<i>shaved</i>	shaven, <i>shaved</i>
shear	shore *	shorn
	<i>sheared</i>	<i>sheared</i>
shine	shone	shone
	<i>shined</i>	<i>shined</i> *
shoot	shot	shot, shotten *
shrink	shrank	shrunk
	shrunk *	shrunk
sing	sang, sung *	sung
sink	sank	sunk, sunken
sit	sat	sat, sitten *
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid, slidden *
sling	slung, slang *	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote, smit *	smitten, smit *
sow	...	sown
	<i>sowed</i>	<i>sowed</i>

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
speak	spoke, spake*	spoken
spin	spun, span*	spun
spring	sprung, sprang*	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole, stale*	stolen
sting	stung, stang*	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode, strid*	stridden
strike	struck	struck
		stricken*
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore, sware*	sworn
swell	...	swollen
	<i>swelled</i>	<i>swelled</i>
swim	swam, swum*	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore, tare	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
	<i>thrived</i>	<i>thrived</i>
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake	woke	...
	<i>waked</i>	<i>waked</i>
weave	wove	woven
win	won, wan*	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung, wrang*	wrung
write	wrote, writ*	written
wear	wore†	worn†

† Originally *weak*. The past tenses of *dig* and *stick* were formerly *weak*; so were the passive participles of *hide*, *rot*, *show*, *strew*, *saw*

WEAK VERBS.

CLASS I.

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
bereave	bereft	bereft
	bereaved*	bereaved*
beseech	besought	besought
bring	brought	brought
burn	burnt	burnt
buy	bought	bought
catch	caught	caught
cleave (stick to)	cleft, clave*	cleft
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
dream	dreamt	dreamt
	dreamed	dreamed
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
feel	felt	felt
flee	fled	fled
have	had	had
hide	hid	hid, hidden
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt	knelt
lay	laid	laid
lean	leant	leant
	leaned	leaned
learn	learnt	learnt
	learned	learned
leap	leapt	leapt
leave	left	left
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
pay	paid	paid

Pres.	Past.	Pass. Part.
pen	pent	pent
	penned	penned
rap (to transport)	rapt	rapt
rot	rotted	rotten
		rotted
say	said	said
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
shoe	shod	shod
sleep	slept	slept
spell	spelt	spelt
spill	spilt	spilt
stay	staid	staid, stayed
sweep	swept	swept
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
weep	wept	wept
work	wrought	wrought
	worked	worked

CLASS II.

bend	bent	bent
		bended
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
build	built	built
cast	cast	cast
clothe	clad	clad
	clothed	clothed
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
feed	fed	fed
gild	gilt	gilt
	gilded	gilded

Pres	Past.	Pass. Part.
gird	girt	girt
[wend]	went	...
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
knit	knit	knit
lead	led	led
let	let	let
light	lit	lit
	lighted	lighted
meet	met	met
put	put	put
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shed	shed	shed
shred	shred	shred
shut	shut	shut
slit	slit	slit
speed	sped	sped
spend	spent	spent
spit	spit, spat	spit
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
sweat	sweat	sweat
thrust	thrust	thrust
wet	wet	wet
	wetted	wetted
whet	whet	whet
	whetted	whetted

All words which are names of Individuals, or of Classes, whether of Concrete things or of their Attributes, are called **Substantives**. The inflexions of Substantives are those of **Gender, Number, and Case**.

Living beings, or dead things regarded as living, have inflexions indicative of sex. Thus, in *actr-ess*, *executr-ix*, *hero-ine*, the endings *-ess*, *-ix*, *-ine* denote *Feminine* gender. There is no need for inflexion for words of *Masculine* gender. Names of dead things are said to be of *Neuter* gender; names of persons that may be either masculine or feminine, as *parent*, are of *Common* gender.

When more than one of a class is signified, an inflexion of **Number** is used, as in *cat-s*, *virtue-s*. Substantives that can take this inflexion are called **Common**. Substantives that are names of individuals, such as *Cromwell*, *London*, which are called **Proper**, or *justice*, *electricity*, which are called **Abstract**, have no such inflexion.* They are said to be of the **Singular** number, *cats* and *virtues* being **Plural**.

There are many survivals of older forms, especially of strong forms, as *mouse*, *mice*; *goose*, *geese*; and a termination in *-en*, as *ox*, *oxen*; *cow*, *kine*. We have also in use many words of other languages, as *magus*,

* We often use Proper Substantives in a derived sense, so as to make Common Substantives of them: thus we speak of *Cromwells*, meaning ambitious men; and *elasticities*, meaning varying degrees of elasticity in different bodies.

magi (Latin); *beau, beaux* (French); *hypothesis, hypotheses* (Greek); *cherub, cherubim* (Hebrew); *bandit, banditti* (Italian). These words will become true English as soon as they assume English inflexions. We can now say *cherubs* or *cherubim*, *bandits* or *banditti*, *memorandums* or *memoranda*, *dogmas* or *dogmata*, at our liking. All such words end by becoming entirely English, or falling into disuse.

In a few instances—*brothers* and *brethren*, *pence* and *pennies*, etc.—we have older irregular and modern regular forms existing side by side. They have been needed to express different meanings.

Note the *v* in the plural, corresponding to *f* in the singular, in *loaf, loaves*; *wife, wives*, and generally in words in *f* or *fe*.

Inflexions indicating the office performed by a Substantive in a sentence are called inflexions of **Case**.

When a Substantival occurs either as Subject or Predicate, it is said to be in the **Nominative Case**: as in *Grasses are herbs*, both *grasses* and *herbs* are in the Nominative: Other usages of the Nominative may be illustrated by the following sentence: *Cromwell, the Protector, having died, Charles, the son of the former king, returned to power*. Here *Protector* and *son* are said to be in **Apposition** to *Cromwell* and *Charles*, inasmuch as they refer to the same person; and, having no further office than this in the sentence, they are put in the same case as those other Substantives respectively. Moreover, *Charles* is of course

Nominative as Subject of the sentence, but *Cromwell having died* being equivalent to a parenthetical sentence (such as *when Cromwell was dead*), is said to stand in the Nominative **Absolute**.

Somewhat similar to the use of Substantives in apposition is that of the **Secondary Predicate**: e.g., *Pitt was appointed Prime Minister*. Here *Prime Minister* refers to the same person as Pitt, and is put in the same case, the Nominative. This Secondary Predicate, however, may be an Adjective: e.g., *James was beaten black and blue*; here *black and blue* is Secondary Predicate, just as *Prime Minister* is in the preceding sentence.

A Substantive is said to be in the **Objective Case** when it is the Object of a Transitive Verbal or a Preposition; as *Solomon chastised the Jews with whips*. Here *Jews* and *whips* are in the Objective. A Substantive in apposition to another in the Objective, of course, follows it in case. Other usages of the Objective will be seen in the following examples: *John struck Matthew a blow*. Here *blow*, which shows in what the striking consisted, is called an Objective of **Cognate** meaning. *I dreamed a dream six minutes*; *Thomas ran six miles*. Here, again, *dream* is a Cognate Objective; *minutes* and *miles* are Adverbial Objectives, attributives of *dreamed* and *ran*. *Andrew gave John a book*; *Richard built James a hut*. Here we might substitute *to John*, for *James*, for *John* and *James*. Such Objectives are called **Datival**, because they would be in the Dative case in Latin

and Old English ; we have lost this case in Modern English.

All these Objectives, Cognate, Adverbial, and Dativai, may be used after Passive Verbs. Thus : *A race was run six miles ; a book was given John ; Matthew was stricken a blow.*

We shall see, under the head of Pronouns, why we retain the names of Nominative and Objective for Substantivals, although there is no inflexion whatever to distinguish them. Inflexion is replaced by Position in the sentence : the Object always following the word that governs it, and the Subject always preceding the Verbal—at least, in unrhctorical prose.

When a Substantive takes the Possessive inflexion it acquires the power of an Adjectival word : compare *saint's glory* with *saintly glory* ; *men's life* with *human life*. The inflexion is always 's in the singular (pronounced *is* if necessary, as in *Banks's horse*), in plurals it is indicated in writing by the apostrophe ('), but not in pronunciation.

Attributives, whether Adjectival or Adverbial, have inflexion of **Degree**, which indicates the relative intensity in which the attribute exists : thus, in *Cherries are red*, *red* is simply assertive, and is called **Positive** in degree ; in *Cherries are redder than strawberries*, where a comparison is made between two kinds of fruit, *redder* is said to be **Comparative** ; in *Tomatoes are reddest of all*, the strongest assertion possible of redness is made, and *reddest* is said to be **Superlative** in Degree.

Exactly similar inflexions exist in Adverbs; thus, *quickly, quicklier, quickliest; near, nearer, nearest.*

There are a number of irregular comparisons, chiefly survivals of older forms.

Words that are incapable of inflexion, among which are included Conjunctions and Prepositions, are called **Particles**.

Substantival, Adjectival, and Adverbial words may be divided into two groups. The first group have a distinct denotation, and can only be applied to definite individuals or classes of things or attributes: such are *Cæsar, apple, veracity; good; rapidly.* This class we call **Nominal**. The other group have no definite denotation, and can be applied to any individuals or classes. Thus *I* may mean *John Smith, Edward Thompson*, or any other speaker; *it* may point out *a man, a book, a grief*, or any other thing of substantival name; *any* may be attributive to any substantival; *then* may indicate 3 p.m., yesterday, 150 B.C., or any other time. Such words are called **Pronouns**. In other words, Invariable names are Nominal, Variable names are Pronominal.

Adverbial Pronouns, unlike other Adverbial words, have no inflexions of degree; nor have Adjectival Pronouns. The only inflexion of any kind in Adjectival Pronouns now remaining is that of Number in the *Demonstrative Pronouns*: *this, that*, plural *these, those*.

In Substantival Pronouns, on the other hand, we find a more complete system of case inflexions than in

other Substantival words, the Objective and Nominative cases having distinct forms.

The existence in Pronouns of different forms for the Nominative and Objective Cases is our justification for retaining these expressions in relation to Substantivals generally.

I denotes the person here, speaking ; *thou* the person there, spoken to ; *he* the person yonder, spoken of. These are called **Personal** Pronouns of the First, Second, Third, Person respectively.

We is not strictly a plural of *I* : it means *I and thou*, or *I and he*, not *I and I*, as a true plural would.

In respect of meaning, the pronoun of the third person would be better classed with Demonstrative Pronouns ; but, as being declined, it is more conveniently placed where it stands.

Mine, *ours*, *thine*, *yours*, *hers*, *theirs* are used as Predicates ; *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *her*, *their* as Attributives : thus, *my house is let*, but *the house to let is mine*.

Who, which is equivalent to *and I*, *and thou*, or *and he*, is the **Relative** Pronoun, as previously explained.

The full statement, or **Declension**, of these Pronouns is given in the following table.

	FIRST PERSON.		SECOND PER.		THIRD PERSON.				RELATIVE.	
	Sing.	Plural.	Sing.	Plural.	Singular.			Plural.	Both Numbers.	
					Masc.	Fem.	Neut.		Com.	Neuter.
<i>Nominative.....</i>	I	we	thou	you	he	she	it	they	who	which
<i>Possessive.....</i>	mine	ours	thine	yours	his	hers	its	theirs	whose	...
	my	our	thy	your	...	her	...	their
<i>Objective</i>	me	us	thee	you	him	her	it	them	whom	which

There are traces still left in our language of a much fuller system of cases.

	DEMONSTRATIVE.				THIRD PERSON.		RELATIVE.	
	Masc.	Fem.	'Neut.	Plural.	Masc.	Fem.	Com.	Neuter.
<i>Nominative...</i>	the	...	that	they	he	she	who	what
<i>Accusative ...</i>	then	((than)	that	when	what
<i>Ablative</i>	the	why	why
<i>Dative.....</i>	...	there	...	them	him	here	whom	whom
<i>Genitive</i>	their	his	her	whose	whose

The (ablative or instrumental) occurs in such phrases as *all the more*.

When a Relative Pronoun is used there is always some word to which the Relative is said to refer; thus, in *the plant which grew in my garden*, *which* is said to refer to *plant*, which is called the **Correlative** or **Antecedent** of *which*.

When we do not know this antecedent, and wish to be informed about it, we use the same pronoun, but in written language we put a note of interrogation (?) at the end of the sentence; in speech, we suspend the breath, that the person addressed may complete the information by his answer, which consists of the correlative; thus, *Which plant do you speak of?—The rose tree. Where did it grow?—In my garden. Who pointed it out?—My brother.* Here *rose tree* is Correlative to *which*, *garden* to *where*, *brother* to *who*. When thus used the Pronouns are called **Interrogative**.

That may be used for *who* or *which*; *what*, which is equivalent to *that which*, is called the **Compound Relative**.

Another class of Pronouns, which differ from Demonstrative in not distinctly pointing out what persons, things, etc., are alluded to, is called **Indefinite**. To this class belong *one, none, any, some, each, either, neither, other*, etc., which can be used either as Substantivals or Adjectivals; but four words, which can only be used as Adjectivals, are placed in a separate class, and called **Articles**. These four are *at, he, every, no*. *A* is called the **Indefinite Article**, because it shows the logical nature of the

sentence in which it occurs to be particular and indefinite; so *the* is called the **Definite Article**, and occurs in particular definite assertions; *every* occurs in universal positive statements, and *no* in universal negative statements. Compare page 17.

The preceding remarks apply to Substantival and Adjectival Pronouns. With regard to Adverbial Pronouns, the main point here to be noticed is the correspondence existing between the series derived from the three stems, *who*, *the* (this), and *he*, as shown in the following table.

Position.	Motion to.	Motion from	Time.	Manner.	Cause.
where	whither	whence	when	how	why
there	thither	thence	then	thus	the
here	hither	hence	[now]	[so]	[because]

In this table the last three are the only words not derived from one of the three stems; for *the*, see foot of page 36.

CHAPTER III.

ON AUXILIARIES.

IN the present stage of the history of our language, Inflexions tend rapidly to disappear. A very slight comparison between present English and that of eight centuries ago will show that we have lost inflexions for the plural of verbs, moods of verbs, cases and genders of substantival and adjectival words. The dual number, the instrumental case, the declension* of participles, have absolutely vanished. It is not necessary for the understanding of the present tongue to know the history of its more ancient forms, but it is convenient, especially for those who are learners of other languages, to gather up the chief instances of what in them is indicated by inflexion, but in our own speech is shown in other ways,—in order that comparison may be facilitated, and the direction of impending changes understood. The words which replace inflexions are called **Auxiliaries**.

The Auxiliaries for Verbs are *be, can, shall, will, may, have, do*, which are thus conjugated.

* The termination *-ing* in such phrases as *the house is now a-building*—that is, *in building*—is not, as often stated, the remains of a Gerundial form; but simply the ending of the common Substantival Verb. The old Dativ Gerund is really now represented by the simple Infinitive.

To Be.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I a-m	1. We are.
2. Thou ar-t	2. Ye, you are
3. He is	3. They are

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was	1. We were
2. Thou was-t	2. Ye, you were
3. He was	3. They were

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I be	1. We be
2. Thou be	2. Ye, you be
3. He be	3. They be

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I were	1. We were
2. Thou were,* wer-t	2. Ye, you were
3. He were	3. They were

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—Be (thou). *Plural*—Be (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *To be*. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, *Be-ing*.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, *Bee-n*.

* Old.

Can.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I can	1. We can
2. Thou can-st	2. Ye, you can
3. He can	3. They can

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I cou-l- <i>d</i>	1. We cou-l- <i>d</i>
2. Thou cou-l- <i>d</i> -st	2. Ye, you cou-l- <i>d</i>
3. He cou-l- <i>d</i>	3. They cou-l- <i>d</i>

Shall.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall	1. We shall
2. Thou shal-t	2. Ye, you shall
3. He shall	3. They shall

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shoul- <i>d</i>	1. We shoul- <i>d</i>
2. Thou shoul- <i>d</i> -st	2. Ye, you shoul- <i>d</i>
3. He shoul- <i>d</i>	3. They shoul- <i>d</i>

Will.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I will	1. We will
2. Thou wil-t	2. Ye, you will
3. He will	3. They will

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I woul- <i>d</i>	1. We woul- <i>d</i>
2. Thou woul- <i>d-st</i>	2. Ye, you woul- <i>d</i>
3. He woul- <i>d</i>	3. 'They woul- <i>d</i>

May.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may	1. We may
2. Thou may- <i>est</i> , may- <i>st</i>	2. Ye, you may
3. He may	3. They may

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I migh- <i>t</i>	1. We migh- <i>t</i>
2. Thou migh- <i>t-est</i> migh- <i>t-st</i>	2. Ye, you migh- <i>t</i>
3. He migh- <i>t</i>	3. They migh- <i>t</i>

Have.*Present Tense.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have	1. We have
2. Thou ha- <i>st</i>	2. Ye, you have
3. He ha- <i>s</i> , ha- <i>th</i>	3. They have

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I ha- <i>d</i>	1. We ha- <i>d</i>
2. Thou ha- <i>d-st</i>	2. Ye, you ha- <i>d</i>
3. He ha- <i>d</i>	3. They ha- <i>d</i>

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—Have (thou). *Plural*—Have (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *To* have. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, *Hav-ing*.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, *Ha-d*.

Do.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I do.	1. We do
2. Thou do-st, do-est	2. Ye, you do
3. He doe-s, do-th, do-eth	3. They do

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I did	1. We did
2. Thou did-st, didd-est	2. Ye, you did
3. He did	3. They did

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—Do (thou). *Plural*—Do (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *To* do. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, *Do-ing*.

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, *Do-ne*.

The conjugation of all Verbs, as far as inflexions are used, corresponds to that of these Auxiliaries.

STRONG CONJUGATION.

To Smite.

PRESENT, *Smíte.* PAST, *Smote.* PASSIVE PARTICIPLE,
Smitten.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

1. I *smíte*
2. Thou *smít-est*
3. He *smíte-s*
smíte-th

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. I *smíte*
2. Thou *smíte*
3. He *smíte*

Plural.

1. We *smíte*
2. Ye, you *smíte*
3. They *smíte*

1. We *smíte*
2. Ye, you *smíte*
3. They *smíte*

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I *smote*
2. Thou *smot-est*
3. He *smote*

1. I *smote*
2. Thou *smote*
3. He *smote*

Plural.

1. We *smote*
2. Ye, you *smote*
3. They *smote*

1. We *smote*
2. Ye, you *smote*
3. They *smote*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—Smite (thou). *Plural*—Smite (ye, you).

INFINITIVE, *To smite.* PRESENT PARTICIPLE, *Smít-ing.*

PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, *Smitt-en.*

WEAK CONJUGATION.

To Lift.PRESENT, Lift. PAST, Lift-*ed*. PASS. PARTICIPLE, Lift-*ed*.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

1. I lift
2. Thou lift-**est**
3. He lift-**s** (-**eth**)

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. I lift
2. Thou lift
3. He lift

Plural.

1. We lift
2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift

1. We lift
2. Ye, you lift
3. They lift

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I lift-*ed*
2. Thou lift-*ed-st*
3. He lift-*ed*

1. I lift-*ed*
2. Thou lift-*ed*
3. He lift-*ed*

Plural.

1. We lift-*ed*
2. Ye, you lift-*ed*
3. They lift-*ed*

1. We lift-*ed*
2. Ye, you lift-*ed*
3. They lift-*ed*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular—Lift (thou). *Plural*—Lift (ye, you).INFINITIVE; *To lift*. PRESENT PARTICIPLE, Lift-*ing*.PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, Lift-*ed*.

But the fuller conjugation, by means of Auxiliaries,
is indicated in the following table.

ACTIVE VOICE.

	Imperfect.	Perfect.
<i>Present</i>	(1) I do rule (2) I am ruling	(1) I have ruled (2) I have been ruling
<i>Past</i>	(1) I did rule (2) I was ruling	(1) I had ruled (2) I had been ruling
<i>Future</i>	(1) I shall rule (2) I shall be ruling	(1) I shall have ruled (2) I shall have been ruling

The forms marked (2) are called **Progressive forms**; they indicate continued duration of state or action.

PASSIVE VOICE.

	Imperfect.	Perfect.
<i>Present</i>	I am ruled	I have been ruled
<i>Past</i>	I was ruled	I had been ruled
<i>Future</i>	I shall be ruled	I shall have been ruled

We have already seen that the Adjectival form of the Verb is indicated by Inflexion, and is called the Participle. The Substantival form, on the contrary, is indicated by the Auxiliary *to* : thus, *to write* is the Substantival form of the Verb *write*, and is called its **Infinitive Mood**. This Auxiliary is omitted when the Infinitive follows an auxiliary verb, and sometimes after other verbs : thus we say *I can write*, not *I can to write* ; but *I dare write* or *I dare to write*, *I bade him write* or *I bade him to write*, at our pleasure.

The word *of* is used as an auxiliary to replace the Possessive Case inflexion : we say *Smith's abode* or *the abode of Smith*.

More and *most* are used as auxiliaries to replace the Comparative and Superlative inflexions of Attributives, especially if they be words of more than two syllables. We say *easiest* or *most easy*, *readier* or *more ready* ; but *more excellent*, not *excellenter*, *most moderately*, not *moderateliest*.

To replace the Feminine inflexion of Substantivals various devices are used. In some cases we use words from different roots, as *bull*, masculine, *cow*, feminine ; in others, we prefix *he* and *she*, *man* and *maid* ; as *he-goat*, m., *she-goat*, f. ; *man-servant*, m., *maid-servant*, f. In others, we retain foreign terminations for the feminine, as *executr-ix*, *hero-ine*, *sultan-a*. In some words the old indications of sex are disguised by historical changes, as in *lass* for *lad-ess*, *woman* for *wife-man*, *drake* for *end-rake* (i.e. *duck-ling*).

On comparison of Verbal Auxiliaries, *do*, *may*, *shall*

etc., with Prepositional Auxiliaries, one of which is still in use, namely *of*, and others (*in, by, with, from, to, for, at*) which replace cases that formerly existed in our own and still exist in many other languages, we see that in both classes alike the important word is not the Auxiliary, but the object governed by it,—to which, indeed, the Auxiliary serves the office of a mere Inflexion. Hence, we conclude that all Prepositions are subordinate to their Objects, and have for their main logical purpose to indicate the relations existing between the individuals or classes denoted by those objects and other individuals or classes; although grammatically they serve, as pointed out in page 15, simply to turn Substantivals into Attributives: thus, in *John who lives in London*, *in* shows a relation of place between *John* and *London*; in *Gold, of all metals most malleable*, *of* shows a relation between *gold* and other *metals*.

CHAPTER IV.

SENTENCES.

THUS far we have considered the relations of words within a single sentence; we have now to consider the nature of Sentences themselves, and the relations of Sentences to each other.

There are three kinds of sentence that can stand alone: one that asserts, one that commands, one that inquires—*e.g.*, *I write* asserts a fact, and is called **Assertive**; *Write thou!* utters a command, and is called **Imperative**; *Who writes?* asks a question, and is called **Interrogative**.

These kinds of sentence agree in grammatical form—each containing a Subject and a Verbal; but in logical meaning they greatly differ. In fact, logic deals only with assertions, and *Write thou!* or *Who writes?* must be transformed into *I bid thee write*, or *I wish to know who writes*, before any logical process can be applied to them.

All sentences that can stand alone are called **Principal**.

There are other sentences that fill the office of single words, as parts of a Principal Sentence: thus, in *We detest what is evil* the object of the verb *detest* is *what is evil*, which fills the place of such a substantival word as *iniquity*. Sentences that fill the office of a substantival word are called **Substantival** sentences. In like manner *The man who is rich* is the

same thing as *The rich man*: such sentences as *who is rich* can replace an adjectival word, and are therefore called **Adjectival**. Notice that the first word in such sentences is usually a Relative Adjectival.

Again, in *He fell where he was struck*, the sentence *where he was struck* acts as an adverbial attributive to *fell*. Such sentences are called **Adverbial**, and usually begin with a Relative Adverbial.

Substantival, Adjectival, and Adverbial sentences are called **Subordinate**.

Any sentences of a like nature that are connected by Conjunctions, or stand side by side in Apposition, are called **Co-ordinate**.

A sentence containing several co-ordinate sentences is called **Compound**; one containing a subordinate sentence is called **Complex**.

Thus, *If we wish to classify the elements, we must consider what properties each possesses, and also the place that it holds in the series of atomic weights*, is a Complex sentence, in which the Subordinate sentences are: 1. Adverbial, *If we wish to classify the elements*, 2. Substantival, *what properties each possesses*, 3. Adjectival, *that it holds in the series of atomic weights*.

Again, *John ran fast (1), and James ran faster (2), because the farmer was at their heels (3)*, is a Compound sentence, consisting of three; of which (1) and (2) are co-ordinate with each other, and (1) and (2) together are co-ordinate with (3).

CHAPTER V.

INVERSE PROCESSES.—ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

HAVING now examined how sentences are built up, the relations that their component words bear to them and to each other, and how these relations are indicated by inflexions and auxiliaries, we turn to the inverse process of separating a sentence into its component parts. This, like all inverse processes, is much more difficult than the direct one ; and it is desirable, before giving general rules for its accomplishment, to point out a few of these difficulties one by one. I will take examples already handled by others. In the sentence *He would pore upon the brook*, we must not analyse it into—*He*, the Subject, *would pore upon*, the Transitive Verbal (or, as it is often called so confusingly, the Predicate), and *the brook*, the Object. Such analysis is inaccurate. A Preposition such as *upon* may perform one of two offices : it may either coalesce with an Intransitive Verbal, *pore*, to form a Transitive Verbal, *pore upon* ; or it may, together with its object, *the brook*, make up an Attributive, *upon the brook*, as is the case here. In the one case, the relation between the Subject and Object is the matter present to the mind of the speaker ; in the other,

the condition of the Subject. Compare, for instance, the sentences *Achilles attacked Hector* and *Achilles fell upon Hector*, where *attacked* and *fell upon* clearly have the same office in the sentence, and must be analysed in the same way; and again the sentences *Achilles fought furiously* and *Achilles fought with fury*, where *with fury* and *furiously* are manifestly equivalent, and must be treated similarly. There can be no doubt that *He would pore upon the brook* is a sentence of this latter class.

In the sentence *You have seen a cat fall on a poor little mouse* it is insufficient to take as the object of *have seen* the words *a cat fall on a poor little mouse*. If analysis is to stop here (and it must do so, if sentences are merely to be cut up into four or six pieces and stuck into as many pigeon-holes), then it is a useless and delusive procedure: it is precisely in the fact that *fall* is a Substantival Verb in the Objective Case in apposition to *cat*, and in the further fact that an Object may be formed of a Substantive, *cat*, + a Substantival Verb, *fall on*, + the Object of that Verb, *a poor little mouse*, that the value of analysing this sentence consists. Only by such a further analysis can we show how this Object-phrase is equivalent to a sentence such as *how a cat falls on a poor little mouse*.

Notice the different analysis required in *A cat—falls on—a mouse* and *A cat—falls—on the ground*.

In the sentence *You may imagine how the tiger seizes on a deer*, we may regard *how the tiger seizes*

on a deer as a Substantival sentence, the Object of *imagine*, or as an Adjectival sentence Attributive to *way* or *manner* understood. I prefer the first method; but the important point is that there is here room for difference of opinion; there is certainly a difficulty, and it must not be slurred.

In the phrase *Sir Roger, finding that his servant's indiscretion proceeded*, etc., *finding* may on superficial examination be regarded as equivalent to *because he found*, and therefore of Adverbial nature. No doubt there is such a logical equivalence; but the grammatical equivalent is *who found*, and the real nature of the phrase is Adjectival.

The truth is that language is too complex for us to be able to lay down absolute rules or directions for Analysis; each case must be treated on its own merits. The following method will indeed generally be sufficient, but exceptions will now and then occur amenable to no general statement.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

1. Separate every Compound sentence into its Co-ordinate sentences; and every Complex sentence into its Principal and Subordinate sentences, noting the kind of sentence in each case.

2. Divide each sentence into Subject, Verbal, and (if the Verbal be transitive) Object.

3. Separate the Attributives in the Subject, Verbal, and Object (if there be one).

4. Analyse the Attributives into their ultimate parts.

5. Give the process in a tabular form, as in the following instance :

If you have seen a cat (which, though it looks so meek, is of the tiger kind) fall on a poor little mouse, you may imagine how the tiger seizes on a deer.

i. Principal Sentence.

1. You	...	Subject.
2. may	...	Verbal.
3. imagine	.	Object of 2.

ii. Subordinate : Substantival ; Object of i. 3.

1. how	...	Attributive to 4—7.
2. the	...	Attributive to 3.
3. tiger	...	Subject.
4. seizes	...	Verbal.
5. on	...	Transitive Verbal.
6. a	...	Attributive to 7.
7. deer	...	Object of 4—5.

iii. Subordinate : Adverbial ; Attributive to i. 2—3.

1. if	...	Conjunction.
2. you	...	Subject.
3. have	...	Verbal.
4. seen	...	Object of 3.
5. a	...	Attributive to 6.
6. cat	...	Object of 4.
* 7. fall	...	Attributive to 5—6.
8. on	...	Transitive Substantival Verb.
9. a	...	Attributive to 10—12.
10. poor	...	Attributive to 12.
11. little	...	Attributive to 12.
12. mouse	...	Object of 7—8.

* 7—12 is a Substantival phrase in apposition to 5—6.

**iv. Subordinate : Adjectival ; Attributive
to iii. 6.**

1. which ...	Subject.
2. is ...	Verbal.
3. of ...	Predicate.
4. the ...	Attributive to 5—6.
5. tiger ...	Attributive to 6.
6. kind ...	Object of 3.

**v. Subordinate : Adverbial ; Attributive
to iv. 2—6.**

1. though...	Conjunction.
2. it ...	Subject.
3. looks ...	Verbal.
4. so ...	Attributive to 5.
5. meek ...	Predicate.

The marks [] act in this notation as brackets to the words opposite which they stand, combining them into many-worded phrases, each of which phrases performs its own special single office in the sentence.

The student should never consider that he thoroughly understands a sentence unless he can give a complete analysis of it down to its ultimate components, which are always single words. But it would be intolerably wearisome to perform this operation in every instance. Some combinations—such as those of auxiliaries with words whose inflexions they replace, or those of Articles with the words to which they are attributive—need not be analysed except in special examples. In the following analysis they are left unresolved.

There, at the foot of yonder nodding beech,
 That wreathes its old fantastic root so high,
 His listless length at noontide would he stretch,
 And pore upon the brook that babbles by.

i. Principal Compound Sentence.

- | | | |
|----------------------------|-----|---------------------------|
| 1. There | ... | Attrib. to 7 and 9. |
| 2. at the foot | ... | Attrib. to 7. |
| 3. of yonder nodding beech | ... | Attrib. to <i>foot</i> . |
| 4. his listless length | ... | Obj. of 7. |
| 5. at noontide | ... | Attrib. to 7. |
| 6. he | ... | Subj. |
| 7. would stretch | ... | Transitive Verbal. |
| 8. And | ... | Conj., joining 2—5 & 7 to |
| 9. [would] pore | ... | Verbal. [9-10.] |
| 10. upon the brook | ... | Attrib. to 9. |

ii. Subordinate: Adjectival to *beech*.

- | | | |
|---------------------------|-----|---------------|
| 1. That | ... | Subj. |
| 2. wreathes | ... | Verbal. |
| 3. its old fantastic root | ... | Obj. of 2. |
| 4. so high | ... | Attrib. to 2. |

iii. Subordinate: Adjectival to *brook*.

- | | | |
|------------|-----|---------------|
| 1. that | ... | Subj. |
| 2. babbles | ... | Verbal. |
| 3. by | ... | Attrib. to 2. |

The inconveniences of such an incomplete analysis must not, however, be lost sight of: it nearly always requires such references to words instead of numbers as are given in i. 3 and the headings of ii. and iii., such repetitions as of "[would]" in i. 9,

and it loses the expression of many relations of the words. What, for instance, is the complete Verbal in i. 1? It is the whole of the sentence *minus* the subject *he*. This is not shown in this form of analysis.

I give one more example, taken, like all these other examples of analysis, from Dr. Morris's Primer:—

As soon as Sir Roger was acquainted with it, finding that his servant's indiscretion proceeded only from affection and goodwill, he only told him that he had paid him too high a compliment.

i. Principal Sentence.

1. he	...	Subj.
2. finding	...	Attrib. to 1.
3. only	...	Attrib. to 4.
4. told	...	Verbal.
5. him	...	Datival obj. of 4.

ii. Subordinate: Substantival; Object of i. 2.

1. that	...	Symbolic.
2. his servant's indiscretion	...	Subj.
3. proceeded	...	Verbal.
4. wholly	...	Attrib. to 3.
5. from affection and goodwill	...	Attrib. to 3.

iii. Subordinate: Substantival; Object of i. 4.

1. that	...	Symbolic.
2. he	...	Subj.
3. had paid	...	Verbal.
4. him	...	Datival obj. of 3.
5. too high a compliment	...	Obj. of 3.

iv. Subordinate: Adverbial; Attributive to i.4.

- | | | |
|------------------------|-----|---------------|
| 1. As soon as | ... | Attrib. to 3. |
| 2. Sir Roger | ... | Subj. |
| 3. was acquainted with | ... | Verbal. |
| 4. it | ... | Obj. of 3. |

The degree to which analysis should be carried cannot be determined by fixed rules, any more than the nature of analysis can : the important thing is that the learner should not delude himself with the notion that he has performed a complete analysis if he has merely distinguished Subject, Verbal, Object, and their Attributives. It is, as will be seen from the examples here given, in the further analysis of these into their elements that real difficulties exist, which, if left unsolved, leave the student in a state of either perplexity or complacent ignorance.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation was formerly used to aid the art of Reading aloud ; it is now used to make the logical structure of the sentence easily understood. The signs used in assertive sentences are comma (,), semi-colon (;), colon (:), period (.). These should be used in the order of their importance ; the period always closing the principal sentence, and pairs of commas being used nearly as parentheses. Subordinate sentences will very often be enclosed between a pair of commas, and co-ordinate sentences separated by semi-colons. But as these signs have only a relative

meaning, the only positive rule possible is that within the same period colons should indicate divisions of equal value; as should semicolons within the division indicated by a period or colon; and commas within a division indicated by colon, semicolon, or period.

If subsidiary stops be needed, the dash (—) or break (. . .) may be used.

Interrogative sentences use (?).

Exclamations and commands use (!).

ON PARSING.

Although the Analysis of Sentences cannot be completely subjected to rule, it is possible to state all the various inflexions to which words are subject, and to point out in any given word what inflexions it possesses: if to such an enumeration the office filled by the word in the sentence be adjoined, we have an exercise commonly called **Parsing**.

The best form for this exercise is on ruled paper, with eight columns having printed headings, as in the subjoined form. This ensures completeness, and prevents useless repetition. In such forms as those frequently presented by pupils in examination papers, it is laborious to ascertain whether an exercise has omissions in it, especially if such words as *case*, *tense*, *degree*, etc., are repeated with every word parsed. The example here given is, like those in Analysis, one that has been used by other writers.

HEADINGS.

VERB	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Voice</i>	<i>Mood</i>	<i>Tense</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Number</i>	...
SUBSTANTIVE	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Case</i>	<i>Office.</i>
ADJECTIVE	...	<i>Degree</i>	<i>Office.</i>
ADVERB ...							
CONJUNCTION	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Office.</i>
PRONOUN ...	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Case</i>	<i>Person</i>	<i>Antecedent</i>	...

EXAMPLE.

My	Pron.	poss.	sing.	com.	poss.	1st	...	attrib. to <i>father</i> .
father	Subs.	com.	sing.	masc. indic.	nom.	subj. to <i>lived</i> .
lived	Verb	weak	act.		past	3rd	sing.	...
at	Prep.							
Blenheim	Subs.	prop.	sing.	neut.	obj.	obj. of <i>at</i> .
then	Adv.	attrib. of <i>lived</i> .
Yon	Adj.	attrib. of <i>stream</i> .
little	Adj.	...	pos.	attrib. of <i>stream</i> .
stream	Subs.	com.	sing.	neut.	obj.	obj. of <i>by</i> .
hard	Adv.	attrib. to <i>by</i> .
by	Prep.							
They	Pron.	pers.	plur.	masc. indic.	nom.	3rd	plur.	subj. to <i>burnt</i> .
burnt	Verb	weak	act.		past	3rd		attrib. to <i>dwelling</i> .
his	Pron.	pers.	sing.	masc.	poss.	3rd	...	obj. of <i>burnt</i> .
dwelling	Subs.	com.	sing.	neut.	obj.	
to	Prep.							
the	Art.	def.	attrib. of <i>ground</i> .
ground	Subs.	com.	sing.	neut.	obj.	obj. of <i>to</i> .
And	Conj.	co-ord.	uniting	"they... ground"		and	...	"he ... fly."
he	Pron.	pers.	sing.	masc.	nom.	3rd	...	subj. to <i>was forced</i> .
*was	Verb	aux.	act.	indic.	past	3rd	sing.	completion.
forced	Verb	weak	part.	sign of infin.
to	Prep.	attrib. of <i>was forced</i> .
fly	Verb	weak	infin.	(used adverbially)		

* Or thus,—
was forced

| Verb | weak | pass. | indic. | past imp. | 3rd | sing. |

The only distinctions worth noting in such an exercise are the following.

For VERBS.—1. *Kind* (or, more accurately perhaps, *Conjugation*): **Strong, Weak** (or **Regular and Irregular**). 2. *Voice*: **Active, Passive**. 3. *Mood*: **Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive, Participle, Infinitive**. 4. *Tense*: **Present, Past, Future**, each of these being **Perfect or Imperfect**, except for the simply inflected Past Tense or Aorist, such as *I loved, I struck*. 5. *Person*: **First, Second, Third**. 6. *Number*: **Singular, Plural**. It is not needful to state whether a Verb be Transitive, as if it be, the presence of the Object sufficiently shows it when that Object is parsed; nor what Subject it agrees with, as this, again, is shown in the parsing of that Subject.

For SUBSTANTIVES.—1. *Kind*: **Common, Proper**. 2. *Number*: **Singular, Plural**. 3. *Gender*: **Masculine, Feminine, Neuter**. 4. *Case*: **Nominative, Possessive, Objective**. 5. *Office in Sentence*: **Subject, Predicate, Attributive; Object; In Apposition**.

For ADJECTIVES and ADVERBS.—1. *Degree* (of Comparison): **Positive, Comparative, Superlative**. 2. *Office*: **Attributive**; and, for Adjectives only, **Predicate**. No statement of *Kind* is needed, as the only useful grammatical classification is already indicated in the presence or absence of Degree.

For CONJUNCTIONS.—1. *Kind*: **Co-ordinate, Subordinate**.

For PREPOSITIONS and INTERJECTIONS.—No statement of Office is needed; that of Prepositions is already shown in parsing their Objects. Undue repetition is greatly to be deprecated.

It will be seen by the example given that the use of contractions is advocated where they are unambiguous.

For PRONOUNS. — I. *Kind*: **Personal, Demonstrative, Indefinite, Relative** (Interrogative). ARTICLES may be either made a subdivision of Pronouns, or a separate division by themselves. The further parsing of Pronouns depends simply on the determination whether they are Substantival or Adjectival, as they follow the parsing of Substantives and Adjectives accordingly. The Antecedent of the Pronoun may be named; with Personal Pronouns, the **Person** should be stated.

Note that the Number and Person of a Verb and its Subject must be the same; and that the Number and Person of a Relative Pronoun and its Antecedent must be the same. These agreements are called **Concords**.

Note also that Infinitive Moods of Verbs have the same office in Sentences as Substantives; and Participles the same office as Adjectives. The *parts* of Irregular Verbs may be given.

CHAPTER VI.

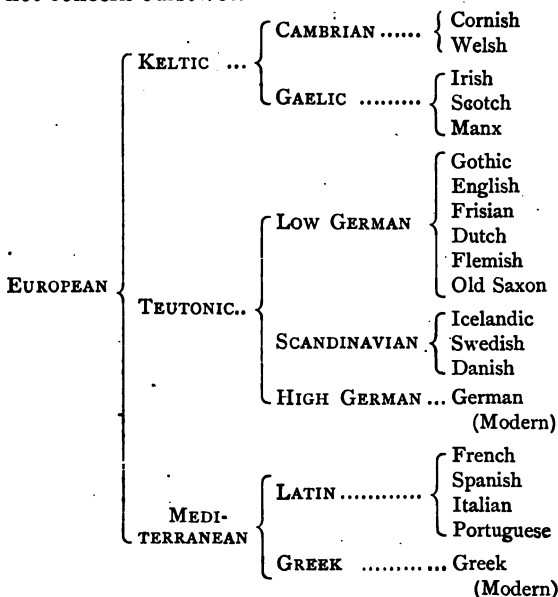
WORD-BUILDING.

HITHERTO we have had to do with the relations of Sentences and their component Words; we have yet to treat of the relations of Words and their component parts,—first, with regard to meaning; secondly, with regard to sound.

Our language being a highly composite one, it is necessary for a *full* analysis of its separate words to have a knowledge of at least three other languages; nevertheless, without this knowledge considerable advance can be made and important results attained.

It is especially necessary at the outset to distinguish the relationship of words that pass from one language to another by direct descent, from the relationship of words in various languages that have a common origin: thus, *liberty* comes to us English from the French *liberté*, and that from the Latin *libertatem*. Here the descent is direct, as from father to son, and such words are termed **Derivatives**: *liberty* is derived from *liberté*, and *liberté* from *libertatem*. On the other hand, *liberté* (French), *libertà* (Italian), *libertad* (Spanish), and *liberdada* (Portuguese), which are all derived from the Latin *libertatem*, have with each other a cognate kinship, but not a direct historical affiliation. There is no recognised name for this

relationship. I suggest that such words be called **Collaterals**. The principal Collateral groups (all derived from the Indo-Germanic family) which concern us are the Keltic, Mediterranean, and Teutonic. The following table gives the divisions of these groups as far as we need them. With the Slavonic and Lettic subdivisions of the European class we need not concern ourselves.



The position of a language in such a classification is determined by the nature of its inflexions: our

inflexions are Low German; our alphabet, however, is Latin, and we have much besides in our tongue from many sources. Yet we are rightly called English or Anglian, and the settlement of Angles in Britain in the fifth century must be regarded as the starting-point of the history of the English tongue.

The portions of our language derived from sources other than Anglian may be thus enumerated.

1. **Keltic.**—A few words retained by the Anglian settlers which they found used by the earlier inhabitants—*e.g.*, *basket*, *gusset*, *mattock*, *crag*, *glen*, *pool*.

2. **Danish.**—A few words introduced by Danish invaders—*e.g.*, *dairy*, *gait*, *same*, *fellow*, *are*, *Whit-by*.

3. **Latin.**—(a) A few words introduced by the Roman invaders: *e.g.*, *street*, *wall*, *Lincoln*, *Gloucester*. (b) Ecclesiastical and culinary words introduced by the Roman priests in the sixth century: *e.g.*, *bishop*, *priest*, *pall*, *minster*; *butter*, *pepper*, *cheese*. (c) Since the revival of literature in the sixteenth century, innumerable words, especially of scientific nature, have been introduced.

4. **French.**—Under the Norman kings many French words were introduced, especially feudal and legal terms: *e.g.*, *duke*, *villein*, *service*, *warrant*, *domain*, *caitiff*, *feat*.

5. **Greek.**—Latterly scientific and philosophical words have been chiefly formed from Greek: *e.g.*, *biology*, *ethics*. These until very recently were invested with Latin spelling and inflexion: thus, *museum*, not *mouseion*; *cœlenterata*, not *koilenterata*.

6. **Miscellaneous.** — For example : *virtuoso* (Italian), *alkali* (Arabic), *turban* (Persian), *coffee* (Turkish), *tea* (Chinese), *calico* (Hindoo), *yacht* (Dutch), *sago* (Malay), *tattoo* (American), *armada* (Spanish).

It is evident that in a language thus variously derived, the same word may have reached us by different routes, and consequently with variations of form : for example, from one Arabic word we have *syrup* through the Latin, *sherbet* through the Persian, and *shrub* through the Hindoo ; from one Latin word we have *poor* through the French, and *pauper* direct from the Latin. These collateral forms are very numerous.

We have also words varying in spelling to show differences of meaning—as, *plane*, *plain* ; *travel*, *travail* ; and words alike in spelling of different origin—as, *rock*, a stony matter ; *rock*, a spindle ; *rock*, to move to and fro.

Sometimes words are corrupted into a shape that would, without historical investigation, entirely mislead us as to their origin ; thus, *god-chepe* (good bargain) has become *dog-cheap* ; *renegade*, *runagate* ; *souvan*, *sovereign* (as if derived from *reign*).

No distinct names have been assigned to these classes of words. I proposed in 1859 to adopt, from Mineralogy, the name **Dimorphic** for those words that have two forms, and **Pseudomorphic** for those assuming the shape of words of different origin. I would now extend this proposal by calling words that

from different origins have reached us in the same form **Isomorphic**. Thus *human* and *humane* would be Dimorphic ; *ratio*, *ration*, and *reason*, Trimorphic ; *light* = *lux* and *light* = *levis*, Isomorphic ; and *shame-faced* (for shamefast), *periwig* (for peruke), etc., Pseudomorphic. The case in which the forms of words are in a great measure alike, while the meanings differ, is the converse of the case in which the meanings of words are the same or nearly so, although the words have come from different historical sources : for example, *mortal* and *deadly*, *quick* and *rapid* ; these latter words are called **Synonymous**. In our language these words abound, especially in attributives, and their number is increased by the paucity of inflexions, which enables us to use words in different relations to the sentence without coining new ones for each relation ; thus—

All but him were there	... <i>but</i> prepositional
The others were, but he was not...	... <i>but</i> conjunctive
Only they were still	... <i>only</i> adjectival
Yes, only there are two objections	... <i>only</i> conjunctive
It happened only once	... <i>only</i> adverbial
Black things reflect no light	... <i>black</i> adjectival
Black is no colour	... <i>black</i> substantival
I'll black his face	... <i>black</i> verbal
She was teaching	... <i>teaching</i> participial
Teaching is pleasant	... <i>teaching</i> substantival
A teaching man	... <i>teaching</i> adjectival
Respecting that business	... <i>respecting</i> prepositional
I persisted in respecting him	... <i>respecting</i> participial
Such men as he is	... <i>as</i> adverbial pronoun
Such as did it repented	... <i>as</i> substantival relative

Save me or I perish !	... <i>save</i> verbal
All save him died	... <i>save</i> prepositional
Like causes, like effects	... <i>like</i> adjectival
James was like him	... <i>like</i> prepositional
He fell in	... <i>in</i> adverbial
He was in the house	... <i>in</i> prepositional
He came thence	... <i>thence</i> adverbial pronoun
He came from thence	... <i>thence</i> substantival pronoun.

On the existence of Synonyms and of Inflexional Equivalents is founded the exercise of **Paraphrasing**, or the replacing sentences by others in which the words and their arrangement is changed, but the meaning as little altered as possible. Of Inflexional Paraphrase this is an instance :

Original—*Fatherly love.*

Paraphrase—*The love of a father.*

Of Synonymous Paraphrase :

Original—*Fatherly love.*

Paraphrase—*Paternal affection.*

Paraphrasing should be practised on the works of the greatest authors : its principal advantage is in teaching us to recognise the superiority of their diction to our own, and in leading us to search for the reasons of it. The notion that the end of Paraphrase is criticism and emendation, as applied to second-rate work, is delusive.

It is not possible to pursue such exercises, or indeed other studies in language, for any considerable time without noticing that there are beside the

inflexions already mentioned, which change the meaning but not the kind of a word, other terminations which determine kind; so that verbs, adjectives, etc., have each their peculiar endings: thus, *-ness* in *kindness* is a Substantival ending, *-ish* in *childish* an Adjectival ending, *-en* in *shorten* a Verbal ending: such endings are called **Suffixes**. There are also a number of Particles which can be placed at the beginning of words, such as *under-* in *undergo*, *pre-* in *predict*, *syn-* in *syntax*; these are called **Prefixes**, and are nearly all originally of Prepositional origin, indicating position in Space or Time. Their function is, of course, **Attributive**.

When Inflexions, Suffixes, and Prefixes are cut off from a word, what is left is called the **Stem**: this may be Simple or Compound; it may also be capable of further simplification to a **Root**, or it may not: We will treat of these in order, and begin with Prefixes.

Prefixes, when not of English origin, are chiefly derived from Greek, Latin, and French; they fall into two classes: (1) **Correlative**, when pairs of prefixes of opposite meaning exist; (2) **Positive**, which indicate some relation that has no opposite recognised in language. The following tables and examples include all that need be given on this head.

TABLE OF CORRELATIVE PREFIXES.

Meaning.	Anglian.	Greek.	Latin.	French.
<i>From</i> ...	from	apo	ab	a
<i>To, at</i> ...	at, to	eis	ad	a
<i>Down</i> ...	down	cata	de	
<i>Up</i> ...	up	ana		
<i>Out</i> ...	out	ek	ex	a
<i>In</i> ...	in	en	in	en
<i>Off</i> ...	off			
<i>On</i> ...	on, a	epi	in	en
<i>Over</i> ...	over	hyper	super	sur
<i>Under</i> ...	under	hypo	sub	so
<i>Fore</i> ...	fore	pro, pros	ante, præ	avant
<i>After</i> ...	after	meta	post	
<i>Back, again</i> ...	back	ana	re, retro	
<i>Forth</i> ...	forth	apo	pro	pur
<i>Between</i> ...	mid	meta	inter	enter
<i>On both sides of</i> ...		amphi	ambi	
<i>On this side</i> ...			cis	
<i>On the other side</i> ...	out		ultra	oultre
<i>Together</i> ..		hama, syn	cum	coun
<i>Separate</i> ...		dia	se, dis	de
<i>Outside</i> ...			extra	
<i>Inside</i> ...			intra	

TABLE OF OTHER PREFIXES.

<i>Round</i> ...		peri	circum	
<i>Through</i> ...	for	dia	per	par, pur
<i>Across</i> ...		hyper	trans	tres
<i>Parallel to</i> ...		para		
<i>Along, grouped...</i>		ana, cata		
<i>Change</i> ...		meta		
<i>By side of</i> ...	by, be		præter	
<i>Opposite to</i> ...	gain	anti	contra	counter
<i>Against</i> ...	with		ob	
<i>Not</i> ...	n, un	an, a	in	

EXAMPLES.—ANGLIAN.

<i>From</i>	...	fro-ward.
<i>To, at</i>	...	to-ward ; at-one.
<i>Down</i>	...	down-cast ; down-fall.
<i>Up</i>	...	up-bear ; up-braid ; up-right.
<i>Out</i>	...	out-cast ; out-bound ; out-bid.
<i>In</i>	...	in-come ; in-bred.
<i>Off</i>	...	off-shoot ; off-set.
<i>On</i>	...	on-set ; on-slaught.
<i>Over</i>	...	over-turn ; over-flow.
<i>Under</i>	...	under-stand ; under-take.
<i>Fore</i>	...	fore-sight ; fore-bode.
<i>After</i>	...	after-crop ; after-piece.
<i>Back</i>	...	back-bite ; back-slide.
<i>Forth</i>	...	forth-right ; forth-coming.
<i>For</i>	...	for-bid ; for-give ; for-swear.
<i>By, be</i>	...	be-queath ; be-gin ; be-head ; be-come. by-gone ; by-past.
<i>Gain</i>	...	gain-say ; gain-stand.
<i>With</i>	...	with-draw ; with-hold ; with-stand.
<i>N</i>	...	n-either ; n-ot ; n-ever.

EXAMPLES.—GREEK.

<i>Amphi</i>	...	amphi-brach ; amphis-boena.
<i>An</i>	...	an-archy ; am-brosia ; a-tom.
<i>Ana</i>	...	ana-tomy ; ana-lysis ; an-chorite.
<i>Anti</i>	...	anti-pathy ; anti-podes ; anti-type.
<i>Apo</i>	...	apo-strophe ; apo-logy ; apo-logue.
<i>Cata</i>	...	cata-rrh ; cata-strophe.
<i>Dia</i>	...	di-æresis ; dia-meter.
<i>Ex</i>	...	ec-logue ; ec-lipse ; ex-osteosis.
<i>En</i>	...	en-clitic ; el-lipse.
<i>Epi</i>	...	epi-stle ; epi-gram.

<i>Hama</i>	...	hama-dryad.
<i>Hyper</i>	...	hyper-bole ; hyper-critical.
<i>Hypo</i>	...	hypo-thesis ; hypo-sulphuric.
<i>Meta</i>	...	meta-phor ; met-allage.
<i>Para</i>	...	para-ble ; par-allel ; para-dox.
<i>Peri</i>	...	peri-phery ; peri-gree.
<i>Pro</i>	...	pro-blem ; pro-logue ; pro-phet.
<i>Pros</i>	...	pros-elyte.
<i>Syn</i>	...	syn-agogue ; sym-bol ; syl-lable ; sy-zygy.

EXAMPLES.—LATIN AND FRENCH.

* Note the assimilation in these words.

Latin. French.

<i>ab</i> a-vert ; ab-solve ; abs-tain.
<i>a</i> a-bate ; a-venge.
<i>ad</i> a-scribe ; *ac-cede ; *ad-duce ; *af-fix ; *ag-gress ; *al-lege ; *an-nex ; *ap-pend ; *ar-rogate ; *as-sume ; *at-tain.
<i>a</i> a-vail ; a-vouch ; a-vow. a-bandon ; a-dieu ; a-ver ; a-gree ; a-mass.
<i>ambi</i> ambi-tion ; ambi-guous.
<i>ante</i> ante-cedent ; anti-cipate.
<i>avant</i>	...	avant-courier.
<i>cis</i> cis-alpine.
<i>contra</i> contra-dict.
<i>counter</i>	...	counter-feit ; counter-vail ; counter-mand.
<i>cum</i> co-here ; com-mit ; *col-lision ; con-tend ; *cor-rode.
<i>coun</i>	...	coun-sel ; coun-tenance.
<i>de</i> de-duce ; de-prave.
<i>dis</i> dis-tract.
<i>des</i> de-range ; dis-obey.
<i>ex</i> ex-ceed ; e-ject.
<i>a, e</i> a-fraid ; e-mend.
<i>extra</i> extra-vagant.

Latin.	French.	
<i>in</i>	in-cur ; im-pose ; *il-lumine ; *ir-rigate.
	<i>en</i>	... en-close.
<i>intra</i>	intro-duce ; intro-mit.
<i>inter</i>	inter-vene.
	<i>enter</i>	... enter-prise.
<i>ob</i>	ob-ject ; *oc-cur ; *of-fer ; *op-pose.
<i>per</i>	per-fidious.
	<i>pur</i>	... ap-pur-tenance.
<i>post</i>	post-script.
<i>pre</i>	pre-fix.
<i>pro</i>	pro-vide.
	<i>pur</i>	... pur-sue.
<i>preter</i>	preter-mit.
<i>re</i>	re-volve.
<i>retro</i>	retro-cede.
<i>se</i>	se-cede.
<i>sub</i>	sub-mit ; *suc-cour ; *sup-plant ; *suf-fer.
	<i>so</i>	... so-journ.
<i>super</i>	super-add.
	<i>sur</i>	... sur-mount.
<i>subter</i>	subter-fuge.
<i>trans</i>	trans-gress.
	<i>tres</i>	... tres-pass.
<i>ultra</i>	ultra-marine.
	<i>oultre</i>	... outr-age.

TABLE OF ETYMOLOGICAL CONNEXION OF PREFIXES.

Greek.	Latin.	Anglian.
amphi	ambi	—
an	an	un
ana	—	on
anti	ante	—
apo	ab	off
dia	dis	—
ek	ex	—

Greek.	Latin.	Anglian.
en	in	in
epi	—	by
hama	sim—	same
hyper	super	over
hypo	sub	—
meta	med—	mid
para	—	from
peri	per	—
pro	pro, præ	for
syn	cum	—

N.B. *ve-*, *dys-*, *eu-*, *mal-*, *circum-*, which act as prefixes, are derivatives from roots : viz., Latin *veh*; Greek *dus*, *eu*; French *mal*; Latin *circ*.

EXAMPLES OF SUFFIXES.

ENGLISH.

I. Substantival.

-er (ar-, or-) : do-*er*, begg-*ar*, sail-*or*.

This termination indicates the agent. Note that -*ster*, in *maltster*, *songster*, etc., was originally a feminine termination, as it still is in *spinster*.

-ing : learn-*ing*.

-ness : good-*ness*.

-red : hat-*red*.

-th, -t : bread-*th*, heigh-*t*.

-dom : king-*dom*.

-ship : lord-*ship*.

-rick : bishop-*rick*.

-head, -hood : god-*head*, widow-*hood*.

These terminations indicate Abstract Nouns.

- kin : nap-*kin*.
- ling : gos-*ling*.
- ock : hill-*ock*.
- en : chick-*en*.
- ie : dogg-*ie*.

These terminations indicate Diminutives.

- ard, -art : cow-*ard*, bragg-*art*.

2. Adjectival.

- ed : wretch-*ed*.
- en : wood-*en*.
- y : sulk-*y*.
- ish : girl-*ish*.
- ern : west-*ern*.
- full : truth-*ful*.
- less : home-*less*.
- ly (like) : god-*ly*, war-*like*.
- ward : west-*ward*.
- able : lov-*able*.
- some : game-*some*.
- fold : mani-*fold*.

3. Adverbial.

- ly : bad-*ly*.
- ling, -long : flat-*ling*, head-*long*.
- meal : piece-*meal*.
- ward(s) : up-*ward*(s), hither-*ward*.
- wise : other-*wise*.
- way(s) : al-*way*(s).
- s, -ce, -st : need-*s*, on-*ce*, whil-*st* (genitive form).
- n : whe-*n* (accusative form).

- om : seld-*om* (dative form).
- re : whe-*re* (locative form).
- ther : hi-*ther* (locative form).
- n-ce : the-*n-ce* (? locative + genitive).

4. Verbal.

- en : length-*en*.

LATIN AND FRENCH.

I. Nouns.

1. Agent.

- ain, -an : vill-*ain*, artis-*an*.
- ard : drunk-*ard*, wiz-*ard*.
- ee : trust-*ee*, devot-*ee*.
- eer, -ier : engin-*eer*, brigad-*ier*.
- our, -er ; -or ; -t-or, -s-or : vig-*our*, preach-*er*, govern-*or*, doc-*t-or*, supervi-*s-or*.
- trix (fem.) : execu-*trix*, testa-*trix*.
- ess (fem.) : lion-*ess*, song-str-*ess*.
- ive, -t-ive, -s-ive : fugi-*t-ive*, eva-*s-ive*.
- iff : cait-*iff*, plaint-*iff*.
- ant, -ent : merch-*ant*, stud-*ent*.
- ist : evangel-*ist*, novel-*ist*.
- ite, -it : Israel-*ite*, Jesu-*it*.

2. Abstract Nouns.

- age : cour-*age*, marri-*age*.
- ance, -ence : endur-*ance*, obeis-*ance*, obedi-*ence*.
- ancy, -ency : brilli-*ancy*, excell-*ency*.
- ess, -ise, -ice : larg-*ess*, rich-*es*, merchand-*ise*, just-*ice*.
- son, -som : beni-*son*, poi-*son*, ran-*som*.

- tion : benedic-*tion*, po-*tion*.
- sion : conver-*sion*, occa-*sion*.
- lence : pesti-*lence*, vio-*lence*.
- ment : command-*ment*, nourish-*ment*.
- mony : matri-*mony*, testi-*mony*.
- our : col-*our*, fav-*our*.
- eur : grand-*eur*, liqu-*eur*.
- ry, -ery : chival-*ry*, witch-*ery*.
- tude : longi-*tude*, multi-*tude*.
- ty : boun-*ty*, cruel-*ty*.
- ure : forfeit-*ure*, vest-*ure*.
- y : felon-*y*, victor-*y*.
- sy : pal-*sy*. (From Greek -*sis*.)

3. Diminutives.

- aster : poet-*aster*.
- el, -le : parc-*el*, dams-*el*, cast-*le*.
- icle, -cule : art-*icle*, animal-*cule*.
- ule : glob-*ule*.
- et, -let : hatch-*et*, lanc-*et*, brace-*let*, stream-*let*.
- ette : etiqu-*ette*, coqu-*ette*.

II. Adjectives.

- al : loy-*al*, equ-*al*.
- an, -ain : cert-*ain*, hum-*an*.
- ane : hum-*ane*.
- ant, -ent : ramp-*ant*, pati-*ent*.
- ary : contr-*ary*, honor-*ary*.
- ate : consider-*ate*, priv-*ate*.
- ble, -able : sta-*ble*, eat-*able* (ed-*ible*).
- ese : Chin-*ese*, Malt-*ese*.

- esque : burl-*esque*, pictur-*esque*.
- ile : serv-*ile*, frag-*ile*.
- il, -le : civ-*il*, gent-*le*.
- ine : div-*ine*, infant-*ine*.
- ian : Austral-*ian*, Christ-*ian*.
- ive : acti-*ive*, talk-at-*ive*.
- ose : verb-*ose*, joc-*ose*.
- ous : danger-*ous*, lepr-*ous*.
- ble : dou-*ble*, tre-*ble*.
- ple : tri-*ple*, sim-*ple*.

III. Verbs.

- ate : alien-*ate*, accentu-*ate*.
- ish : flour-*ish*, pun-*ish*.
- fy : magni-*fy*, simpli-*fy*.
- ise : civil-*ise*, fertil-*ise*.

GREEK.

I. Nouns.

- ic : log-*ic*, mus-*ic*.
- ism : fatal-*ism*, magnet-*ism*.
- sis : paraly-*sis*.
- y : monarch-*y*.
- isk (*diminutive*) : aster-*isk*, obel-*isk*.

II. Verbs.

- ize : anathemat-*ize*.

These lists are by no means complete ; nor is it desirable to make them so in a work that does not enter on the history of the language. Dr. Morris's "*Historical Outlines of English Accidence*" (Macmillan, price 4s. 6d.) contains a complete treatment of this branch of the subject.

For exercise in word-building I have used in my own teaching analyses of words on the method of the examples subjoined.

re-	prefix	Latin	back
du-	root	do.	two
plic-	do.	do.	fold
a-	affix	do.	verbal
t-	do.	do.	participia
ion-	do.	do.	substantival
s.	inflexion	English	plural.

Paraphrase, "more than one double foldings back."

pro-	prefix	Greek	forward
ble-	root	do.	cast
mat-	affix	do.	substantival
ic.	do.	do.	adjectival

Paraphrase, "that which concerns things set forth for consideration."

CHAPTER VII.

ORTHOGRAPHY AND ORTHOEPEY.

IN a perfectly constituted language every elementary sound would have a distinct sign to represent it, and every elementary sign would have a distinct sound. This is, unfortunately, far from being the case in English, as will be seen from the following table : the first column of which contains our sound-alphabet, the second examples, and the third the sign-alphabet of written letters.

SOUNDS,		<i>as in</i>		LETTERS.
1. a	...	cat	...	1. A a
2. á	...	páper		
3. ah	...	ah		
4. au	...	caul		
5. b	...	bat	...	2. B b
6. c	...	cat (before <i>a, o, u</i>)		3. C c
7. ch	...	chat		
8. d	...	dad	...	4. D d
9. dh	...	dhis (this)		
10. e	...	let	...	5. E e
11. é	...	éven		
12. f	...	fat	...	6. F f
13. g	...	get	...	7. G g
14. h	...	hot	...	8. H h
15. i	...	fin	...	9. I i
16. í	...	míner		
17. j	...	jet	...	10. J j
k = c	...	kin (before <i>e, i</i>)		11. K k

SOUNDS,		as in		LETTERS.
18. l	...	let	...	12. L l
19. m	...	met	...	13. M m
20. n	...	net	...	14. N n
21. ng	...	sing		
22. o	...	pot	...	15. O o
23. ó	...	bóding		
24. oi	...	boil		
25. oo	...	foot		
26. oó	...	foóling		
27. ou	...	out		
28. p	...	pot	...	16. P p
		(N.B. <i>qu</i> = <i>cw</i>)		17. Q q
29. r	...	rent	...	18. R r
30. s	...	set	...	19. S s
31. sh	...	shame		
32. t	...	take	...	20. T t
33. th	...	thin		
34. u	...	sun	...	21. U u
35. {	...	túning		
ù	...	impùtation		
36. v	...	vain	...	22. V v
37. w	...	wet	...	23. W w
38. wh	...	when		
		(N.B. <i>x</i> = <i>cs</i>)		24. X x
39. y	...	yet	..	25. Y y
40. yh	...	yhu (hue)		
41. z	...	zeal	...	26. Z z
42. zh	...	fúzhon (fusion)		

We have, then, forty-two sounds to represent, and only twenty-six signs to represent them; of these twenty-six, *q* and *x* are superfluous, *qu* having the same sound as *cw*, and *x* the same as *cs*, while *k* is merely a convenient equivalent for *c*. There are,

therefore, nineteen sounds which have no single sign to represent them. The simplest method of representing these, by accented or double letters, is shown in the table. There are, however, other ways in common use; but before considering these, it will be convenient to classify our forty-two sounds.

It would pass the limits of an elementary treatise to give any full explanation of the grounds of the classification here adopted, and less than a full explanation is valueless. Those students who desire accurate statements on this matter must not have recourse to the current English Grammars; but to the writings of Mr. A. J. Ellis or Mr. Guest, especially to the "*Pronunciation for Singers*" by the former of these gentlemen. It should, however, be noted that, although less than forty-two signs cannot well be used in practice to express English sounds, yet six of those enumerated are not strictly elementary. The four **Diphthongs** are compound sounds: thus—

$$\begin{aligned} \acute{u} &= i + oo. \\ ou &= ah + oo. \\ \acute{f} &= ah + i. \\ oi &= au + i. \end{aligned}$$

Ch and *J* are also compound: see p. 86.

Vowel-Sounds.

SHORT		LONG	
		i	
		e	
	a		
u		ah	
o		au	
		ó	
oo	oó		
	ou		
ú			

ROUNDED

—————

UNROUNDED

—————

DIPHTHONGS

~~~~~

DIPHTHONGS

~~~~~

CONSONANT-SOUNDS.

Contacts formed by—

<i>Lip and Lip</i>	<i>Lip and Teeth</i>	<i>Teeth and Tongue-point</i>	<i>Tongue-point and Palate</i>	<i>Palate and Tongue.</i>			
				<i>Concave</i>	<i>Convex</i>	<i>Plane</i>	
			r				} VOICED
			l	.			
			n	.		ng	NASAL
m			t			c, k	MUTE
p			d			g	VOICED
b							} FLATED
wh	f	th		sh	s	yh	
w	r	dh	.	zh	z	y	VOICED
LABIAL	• LABIAL-DENTAL	LINGUAL-DENTAL	PALATAL	PALATAL-SIBILANT	DENTAL-SIBILANT	GUT-TURAL	

TRILLED

LATERAL

SHUT

CENTRAL

Ch and *J* are compound sounds, equivalent to *tsh* and *dzh*. The Mute and Flated sounds are often termed *sharp*; the Voiced sounds *flat*. The *h*-breathing is called the *Aspirate*.

In the spelling of consonant-sounds the following points are important.

Ng before *c = k*, or *g*, is spelled *n*; as in *anchor*, *anker*, *anger*.

K is generally used before *e, i*; *C* before *a, o, u*, to represent the sound of No. 6 in the table; *C* before *e, i*, taking the sound of *s*.

In like manner, *G* before *e, i*, usually takes the sound of *j*; therefore to represent sound No. 13, *gu* is used before *e, i*, as in *rogue*, *guess*, *guilt*.

Wh and *Gh* are frequently corrupted into *w* and *y* in affected or vulgar pronunciation; *Ng* in unaccented syllables in like manner becomes *n*, and *R* after a vowel is dropped. Thus we often hear *wen*, *singin*, *fahther*, for *when*, *singing*, *farther*.

Ph is often used for *f* in words from Greek and Latin, as in *philosophy*.

In inflexions, for the sake of uniformity to the eye, the sound-representation is neglected: thus we write *stags*, but pronounce *stagz*; we write *dropped*, but pronounce *dropt*.

There are no recognised contrivances in our orthography for sounds 9 and 42: this is to be regretted. We cannot tell how to indicate whether *th*, in a word which we have not heard pronounced, is to take the sound of *th* in *thin* or *th* in *then*. It would be so

easy to introduce *dh* for the latter sound, and it would be in such perfect harmony with the rest of our orthography to do so, that it is a pity not to do it. Similar remarks apply to *zh*. The adoption of these two spellings would make our sound-alphabet *complete*.

A large number of useless letters are retained in our spelling that have ceased to be pronounced. Examples are italicized in the following: *debt*, *scene*, *schism*, *gnat*, *weigh*, *chasm*, *honor*, *knee*, *could*, *hymn*, *receipt*, *apophthegm*, *viscount*, *whistle*, *whom*. Gradually, however, such letters disappear: we no longer write *salvage*, *conceipt*, *spright*; and in time we shall write *receit* and *brite* on the same analogy.

In vowel-spellings it is worth noting that we have several spellings for some sounds which may be regarded as regular; thus,—

Alongside of <i>é</i> we have	<i>ee</i>	and	<i>ea</i> ,	as in	<i>cede</i> ,	<i>seen</i> ,	<i>dear</i> .
„	<i>â</i>	„	<i>ai</i>	„	<i>ei</i> ,	„	<i>rate</i> , <i>pail</i> , <i>vein</i> .
„	<i>ô</i>	„	<i>ow</i>	„	<i>oa</i> ,	„	<i>bode</i> , <i>bowl</i> , <i>loan</i> .
„	<i>û</i>	„	<i>eu</i>	„	<i>ew</i> ,	„	<i>rude</i> , <i>feud</i> , <i>newt</i> .
„	<i>au</i>	„	<i>aw</i>			„	<i>caul</i> , <i>crawl</i> .

A final *e* mute indicates the length of the preceding vowel.

Y is used for *i* when final; as in *by*, *boy*, *bay*, *grey*; and also as medial in words derived from the Greek; as *dynamic*, *lyre*.

It is useless to attempt to represent with minute accuracy the vowel-sounds in unaccented syllables: such as *forfeit*, *marriage*, *dungeon*, *Roman*, *humour*:

they are always slurred and carelessly pronounced. But, with this exception, it is an excellent exercise to re-write a piece of English in a spelling that represents its sounds accurately and uniformly. Here, for example, is the beginning of Goldsmith's *Deserted Village* in the notation of our Sound-Alphabet:—

Swete Auburn! luvliet vilaje ov dhe plane;
 Whare helth and plenti cherde dhe láboring swane;
 Whare smíling spring its erliest vizit pade,
 And parting sumerz lingering bloómz delade:
 Dere luvli bancs of inosens and eze,
 Séts ov mi yoothe, when everi sport cood pleze,
 Hou ofen hav I loiterd ore thi grene
 Whare humbil hapines inderde eche sene!
 Hou ofen hav I pauzd on everi charm;
 Dhe shelterd cot, dhe cultiváted farm,
 Dhe never-fáling brooc, dhe bizi mil,
 Dhe désent church, dhat topt dhe náboring hil,
 Dhe hauthorn bush widh séts benethe dhe shade,
 For tauking aje and whispering luvverz made!
 Hou ofen hav I blest dhe cuming da,
 When toil remiting lent its turn to pla,
 And aul the vilaje trane from lábor fre,
 Led up dhare sports benethe dhe spreddng tre!

N. B. To avoid the use of accents to excess, a final *e* is here used instead wherever the accent falls on the last syllable; except in the case of a word ending in *s* or *z* after another consonant, when the accent is retained; thus, *sete*, *sétz*, *drane*, *dránz*.

CHAPTER VIII.

PROSODY.

ENGLISH verse is regulated by accent. Each line is divisible into Feet, or Measures; and each foot contains one accented syllable. The only kinds of foot requiring notice are—the Iambus, consisting of one unaccented syllable and one accented, as *repair*; the Trochee, consisting of one accented syllable and one unaccented, as *fleeting*; the Anapæst, consisting of two unaccented syllables and one accented, as *evermore*; and the Dactyl, consisting of one accented syllable and two unaccented, as *cheerily*. Definite arrangements of feet are arranged in lines either Rhymed or Unrhymed.

Rhymed Verse.

A rhyming word occurs at the end of each line. For two words to rhyme truly,—

1. The same accented vowel sound must occur in both.
2. Any consonant sounds or additional syllable after the rhyme-vowel must be identical in both.
3. The consonant sounds preceding the rhyme-vowel must be different.

Thus, *blame* and *shame*, *quickly* and *thickly*, form true rhymes; *pain* and *pane* form an identity, but no rhyme; *dear* and *bear* form a rhyme to the eye, but

are not really a rhyme, any more than *peer* and *scare* ; *lies* and *price*, *breathe* and *beneath*, *bustle* and *jostle*, in which only an approximation to the rules is attained, form imperfect rhymes.

The arrangement of rhyming lines is subject to no law but the will of the writer : nevertheless, some arrangements have attained such general acceptance as to require enumeration. In order to present a means of briefly recording the arrangement of feet in lines, and lines in combinations or stanzas, the following notation is the simplest yet proposed :—

An accented syllable is represented by *a*, and an unaccented syllable by *x* ; an Iambus will therefore be *xa* ; a Trochee, *ax* ; an Anapæst, *xxa* ; and a Dactyl, *axx*. The number of feet in a line is indicated by a figure : thus a line of five Iambs is represented by *5xa*. An additional syllable at the end of the line is indicated by + ; optional syllables are included in brackets : thus *(x)xa* means that Anapæsts or Iambs may be used at pleasure. Rhymes are indicated by the use of identical letters for rhyming lines : thus four lines, of which the first and third rhyme, as well as the second and fourth, would be represented by ABAB. The use of these notations will become clear by examining the following instances :—

Heroic Couplets, or simply Heroics.

“ He came ; and, standing in the midst, explained
The peace rejected, but the truce detained.”

Line formula, *5xa* ; stanza formula, AA.

Rhyme Royal, or Chaucerians.

“For, lo, the sea, that fleets about the land,
And like a girdle clips her solid waist,
Music and measure both doth understand,
For his great crystal eye is always cast
Up to the moon, and on her fixeth fast ;
And as she danceth in the pallid sphere,
So danceth he about the centre here.”

Formula, $5xa$; ABABBCC.

Ottava Rima, or Ariosto's Stanza.

“Morgante had a palace in his mode,
Composed of branches, logs of wood, and earth ;
And stretched himself at ease in this abode,
And shut himself at night within his berth.
Orlando knocked, and knocked again, to goad
The giant from his sleep ; and he came forth
The door to open like a crazy thing ;
For a rough dream had shook him slumbering.”

Formula, $5xa$; ABABABCC.

Elegiacs, or Davenant's Metre.

“The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea ;
The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.”

Formula, $5xa$; ABAB.

Spenserians.

“I care not, Fortune, what you me deny ;
You cannot rob me of fair Nature's grace ;
You cannot shut the windows of the sky,
Through which Aurora shows her brightening face :

You cannot bar my constant feet to trace
 The woods and lawns by living streams at eve :
 Let health my nerves and finer fibres brace,
 And I their toys to the great children leave.
 Of fancy, reason, virtue, nought can me bereave."

- Formula, $(x) \begin{matrix} 5xa; \\ 6xa; \end{matrix} \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} 5xa; \\ 6xa; \end{matrix}} \right\} \text{ABABBCBCC.}$

Terza Rima, or Dante's Measure.

"Many are poets, who have never penned
 Their inspiration, and perchance the best ;
 They felt, and loved, and died, but would not lend
 Their thoughts to meaner beings ; they compressed
 The god within them, and rejoined the stars,
 Unlaurelled upon earth, but far more blest," etc.

Formula, $5xa$; ABABCB

Sonnets, or Quatorzains.

A sonnet is a complete poem in fourteen lines of $5xa$ each. In the stricter Italian form it is divisible into two parts of eight lines and six lines, only two rhyming sounds being allowed to each part ; or sometimes two to the part of eight lines, and three to that of six. But in the looser form, as used by Shakespeare (to which it would be well to limit the name Quatorzain), we find merely three elegiac stanzas and a final couplet.

Alexandrines, or Drayton's Measure.

"When Phœbus lifts his head | out of the winter's wave,
 No sooner doth the earth | her flowery bosom brave."

In this measure there is always a break or cæsure after the third foot, which must not end in the middle of a word. We write its formula, therefore, $3xa \mid 3xa$; AA; and not $6xa$; AA.

Ballad Metre.

“The past and present here unite, | beneath Time’s flowing tide,
Like footprints hidden by a brook, | but seen on either side.”

Formula, $4xa \mid 3xa$; AA.

This stanza is often printed in four lines: when it is so, the second parts of the lines should begin with small letters—*beneath, but*; not *Beneath, But*.

Common Metre.

“Happy the heart when graces reign,
When love inspires the breast;
Love is the brightest of the train,
And strengthens all the rest.”

Formula, $4xa, 3xa, 4xa, 3xa$; or, $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{i, iii, } 4xa; \\ \text{ii, iv, } 3xa; \end{array} \right\} \text{ABAB.}$

This is closely allied to the preceding.

Octosyllabics, or Hudibrastics.

“And Hudibras, who used to ponder
On such sights with judicious-wonder.”

Formula, $4xa(+)$; AA.

Long Metre.

This is a name used almost exclusively in hymnals. It is applied to $4xa$; AABB, or to $4xa$; ABAB indifferently.

Other hymn-metres are **Short Metre** (formula, i, ii, iv, *3xa*, iii, *4xa*; ABAB); and **Hallelujah Metre** (formula i—iv, *3xa*, v—viii, *2xa*; ABABCD²DC).

All the metres hitherto noted are Iambic; and it is a significant fact that no metre of any other kind has hitherto succeeded in attaining a popular name. I give an example or two of common recurrence.

Trochaic.—Four Measure.

“Then her countenance all over
Pale again as death did prove;
But he clasped her like a lover,
And he cheered her soul with love.”

Formula, i, iii, *4ax*; ABAB,

ii, iv, *4ax -*,

where the sign - (minus) indicates the deficiency of a syllable in the last foot.

Anapæstic.—Three Measure.

“Oh, ye woods, spread your branches apace;
To your deepest recesses I fly;
I would hide with the beasts of the chase;
I would vanish from every eye.”

Formula, *3xxa*; ABAB.

Dactyllic.—Two Measure.

“Pibroch of Donnil Dhu,
Pibroch of Donnil,
Wake thy wild voice anew,
Summon Clan Connil.”

Formula, i, iii, *2axx*, ii, iv, *2axx -*; ABAB.

The student should exercise himself in formulating

complex stanzas, such as those in Spenser's "Prothalamion," or the metres of Giles and Phineas Fletcher.

Unrhymed Metres.

The only unrhymed form of verse which has a secure position in English literature is the five-measure **Blank Verse** (formula $5xa$):—

"Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe."

The variations of this metre, especially in dramatic writing, are very complex and subtle—too much so to be treated here.

Attempts have been made to imitate classical metres in English, either by substituting accent for quantity, as in Longfellow's "Evangeline," or by adopting the classical quantitative rules, as in Cayley's "Prometheus Vincit," or by combining Longfellow's method with the use of rhyme and the excision of final unaccented syllables, as in the translation of "Catullus" by the author of this Grammar. It seems necessary here only to give the formula for Longfellow's hexameters— $5ax(x)$, $1ax$. Clough's formula is $6ax(x)$.

"Men whose lives glided on like rivers that water the woodlands."

Hiawatha Metre.

Trochaic, two measure. Formula $4ax$.

"Minnehaha, Laughing Water."

Alliteration, head rhyme, mid rhyme, vowel melody, and other devices, contribute very largely to the charm of English verse ; but as none of these (except alliteration in centuries previous to the fourteenth) have been practised under definitely acknowledged rules, they cannot be considered here ; nor can the roundels, virelays, and other toys of versifiers, which have received no general acceptance, and have no hold on the national heart.

THE END.

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